Implications of the Fracture Risk Assessment Algorithm for the assessment and improvement of bone health in patients with prostate cancer: A comprehensive review

Ashish Sharma, Rahul Janak Sinha, Vishwajeet Singh, Gaurav Garg, Samarth Agarwal, Siddharth Pandey


ABSTRACT

Objective: Maintaining the optimum bone health is one of the important concerns in patients with prostate cancer, but it usually remains neglected. Failure to screen these patients is detrimental to both the length and the quality of life. The estimation of bone mineral density (BMD) and more recently the World Health Organization’s fracture risk assessment (FRAX) algorithm in appropriate patients is recommended by several specialty organizations/associations at the time of instituting androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) for metastatic and high-risk individuals. It provides a 10-year risk evaluation of hip and major osteoporotic fractures (MOF). Using this web-based new investigating tool, candidates at high risk of fractures can be predicted more accurately according to clinical risk factors (CRF) alone or in combination with the femoral neck BMD. The FRAX application for senile osteoporosis has been studied and reviewed extensively, but no systematic review has ever been conducted for assessing the implication of FRAX in prostate cancer. This review article will give insight about the validity, role, and utility of this investigating tool in clinical practice for fracture risk assessment in these individuals.

Material and methods: This systematic review was carried out as per the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses guidelines and Cochrane review principles. We searched the PubMed, Cochrane database of systematic reviews, and the EMBASE electronic database until December 2018 using the medical subject heading terms prostate cancer and FRAX.

Results: A total of nine studies meet the inclusion criteria and were included in the review. These studies enrolled a total of 3704 patients (sample size range, 78–1220) of localized, metastatic, castration resistant prostate cancer with or without ADT and/or on photon or radiotherapy. The factors that influenced FRAX included age, ethnicity, baseline BMD, duration of ADT, presence of CRF, and measurement methods (CRF, with/without BMD, computed tomography based). An advanced age and duration of ADT were the most robust risk factors. A 10-year MOF and hip fracture risk estimation was higher when the femoral neck BMD was not incorporated in the FRAX measurement. Despite several well-known strengths of using FRAX in the fracture risk assessment of suitable candidates with prostate cancer, several risk factors such as the mode/duration of ADT, mode of radiotherapy, Vitamin D levels, bone remodeling markers, and recent/recurrent fractures need to be incorporated in the FRAX calculator for improving the predictive ability. In contrast to senile osteoporosis with a longer life expectancy, the fracture risk in patients with prostate cancer need to be measured more frequently and for a shorter time. Therefore, models like Garvan calculator with both 5- and 10-year risk estimates have to be developed for these patients. Additionally, its utilization is of limited value in the presence of recurrent fractures or falls.

Conclusion: The FRAX algorithm is beneficial in identifying patients who require early intervention or bone-directed therapy as an early step to decrease skeletal-related events and other morbidity. Several risk factors need to be added for improving the FRAX predictive value. This model is still underutilized in the clinical practice and increasing the awareness among treating physicians will help in optimizing the bone health and the quality of life of this important population subgroup.

Keywords: Androgen deprivation therapy; bone health; bone-directed therapy; fracture risk assessment tool; FRAX algorithm; prostate cancer; skeletal-related events.
Introduction

Prostate cancer is one of the major global health concerns accounting for approximately 240,000 deaths annually with diverse biological and clinical behavior.[1-2] It has the highest incidence of bone metastases among all urological malignancies.[3] The bone involvement in the advanced stage of cancer causes some of the most distressing symptoms: 22% of patients require treatment for pathological fractures, 7% for spinal-cord compression, and 34% for paresis or hemiparesis.[2,3] Maintaining the optimum bone health is one of the important concerns in these patients but it usually remains neglected even today.[3-5] Failure to properly screen these patients is detrimental to both the length and the quality of life, given the consistent increase in life expectancy of men with prostate cancer.[6-8]

Prostate cancer usually occurs in elderly population in which the prevalence of osteoporosis is already common, and further use of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) as a treatment modality has cumulative deleterious results on the bone mineral density (BMD), leading to an increase in the incidence of osteoporosis and skeletal fracture risk.[8-11] Patients on ADT have a four times more likely probability of developing a significant BMD loss, and up to 20% of localized prostate cancer cases will develop fracture within 5 years of the ADT initiation.[12] Cancer-treatment-induced bone loss is a major cause of bone loss and bone-related morbidity in these patients.

An estimation of BMD at the time of instituting ADT for metastatic prostate cancer is recommended by several specialty groups and expert panels.[9-11] Using a new computer-based investigating fracture risk assessment (FRAX) model, candidates at high risk of fractures can be predicted more accurately, and appropriate treatment can be initiated as an early step to prevent skeletal-related events and to improve the quality of life in these patients.[12,13] An appropriate use of imaging modalities such as the Dual Energy X-ray Absorptiometry (DEXA) scan can help detect osteoporosis at an early stage. However, an estimated fracture risk prediction is not so accurate with this modality alone. Until recently, majority of clinical guidelines for the management of osteoporosis was predominantly based on the BMD and T-score alone. Now, more robust and valid models are available for detecting osteoporosis and predicting fracture risks such as FRAX. The FRAX algorithm is recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) for prediction of the fracture risk according to the clinical risk factors alone or in combination with femoral neck BMD (gm/cm²).[13-15] This is a web-based algorithm (available at www.shef.ac.uk/FRAX), which provides a 10-year probability of hip and major osteoporotic fractures (composite of hip, clinical spine, wrist, and humerus) according to age, gender, body mass index, and clinical risk factors. The factors that may affects the FRAX score include age, ethnicity, type and duration of ADT, the mode of radiotherapy, and CRF.[14-17] The following dichotomized risk variables (CRF) were used for FRAX calculation: i) previous fragility fracture, ii) current smoking, iii) history of parental hip fracture, iv) prolonged use of oral steroids (>3 months), v) presence of other causes of secondary osteoporosis, vi) daily alcohol consumption of three or more units, and vii) presence of rheumatoid arthritis.

The National Osteoporosis Foundation (NOF) guidelines[19] recommend the initiation of therapy for prevention of fractures in patients with a T-score ≤2.5, a history of hip or vertebral fracture, and a 10-year hip fracture risk ≥3%, or the major osteoporotic fracture (MOF) ≥20% by the FRAX model (Table 1). Although the application of the FRAX model in the management of senile osteoporosis has been studied and reviewed extensively,[16,18] there has been no comprehensive review ever conducted for assessing the implication of FRAX in prostate cancer. This review article will give insight about the validity, role, and utility in current clinical practice of this investigating tool for FRAX in this important population. To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first systemic review related to the implication of the FRAX algorithm for the prediction of the 10-year MOF and the hip fracture risk in patients with prostate cancer.

Material and methods

The current systematic literature review was carried out as per the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses guidelines[19] and Cochrane review principles.[20] We searched the PubMed, the Cochrane database of system-

| Table 1. National Guideline Recommendations (NOF & NCCN) for osteoporosis, BMD changes, and FRAX risk |
| Patient counseling |
| Smoking cessation |
| Limiting alcohol consumption |
| Weight-bearing exercise |
| BMD testing |
| Men 50–69 based on risk factors |
| All men >70 years old |
| Calcium and vitamin D supplementations |
| Men>50 years calcium: 1200 mg per day |
| Men>50 years vitamin D: 800–1000 IU per day |
| Bisphosphate therapy |
| FRAX risk >3% for hip fracture |
| FRAX risk >20% for major osteoporotic fracture |
| Osteopenia or osteoporosis on BMD |

atic reviews, and the EMBASE electronic database extensively until December 2018 using the medical subject heading terms prostate cancer and FRAX. A total of 21 articles were found. On reviewing these articles, we found that six articles were not related to the FRAX implication in prostate cancer, while three were published in a language other than English. Three articles were related to the application of FRAX tool in other malignancies or in senile osteoporosis. Therefore, after excluding all these we had a total of nine studies for review (Figure 1). Quality assessment of these studies was performed using the New Castle Ottawa Scale tool. In addition, articles published on the pathogenesis and management of the ADT-related bone loss as well as due to metastatic prostate cancer were extensively read and interpreted, and related information is included in the present review.

### Study identification

Nine studies that met the inclusion criteria were identified and reviewed. These studies included a total of 3704 patients with the individual study sample size that ranged from 78 to 1220 and were published between 2010 and 2017 (Table 2). Six studies were retrospective, two were prospective, and one was a cross-sectional study. Seven studies were carried out in the United States except one study in Japan and other one in Spain. The patient selection among these studies varied in respect to enrollment of localized, metastatic, castration resistant prostate cancer (CRPC), with or without ADT and patients on photon therapy or radiotherapy (Table 3). Adler et al. and McDonald et al. included 115 and 609 localized prostate cancer patients without bony metastases. Kawahara et al. studied 1220 prostate cancer patients excluding CRPC, while Valery et al. enrolled 382 patients on photon radiotherapy with or without ADT. The average duration of study was about 1 to 2 years with a range of 4 months–11 years. The range of the mean/median age of patients in these studies was 64.9–77 years.

### Discussion

#### Cancer treatment-induced bone loss

Two complementary processes of the bone remodeling (i.e., bone formation and bone resorption) maintain the normal structural integrity of the healthy bone. This delicate balance is disrupted by estrogen deprivation caused by cancer treatment, resulting in the bone net loss. Androgen deprivation with GnRH analogs or antagonists or surgical castration reduces serum testosterone to <20 ng/mL and estrogen levels by blocking the production of androgens (e.g., testosterone), which are precursors for estrogen biosynthesis via the aromatase pathway. The dysregulation in the RANK ligand pathway causes a subsequent increase in the osteoclast activity and bone resorption, as well as reduced osteoblast activity and bone formation.
cells erode the trabecular bones, while osteoblast cells form the sclerotic woven bones. Although these generated woven bones appear dense on radiography, these are structurally weak and are associated with more risk of fracture. \[28\]

**Bone metastases manifestations**

The most common symptom of skeletal metastases from prostate cancer is pain. The most common site for metastasis is vertebral bodies. Other sites include the pelvis, rib, and long bones. \[3\] Fracture risk is particularly problematical in these patients given that ADT is the primary modality for metastatic prostate cancer. Optimal bone health is an important consideration and needs widespread awareness among treating urologists. With an increased detection of prostate cancer at an early age and improved longevity of these patients, prevention and management strategies of their skeletal-related complications have become all the more important aspect. \[5,10\]

**Role of BMD (DEXA) in bone health evaluation**

Early detection of bone loss in men on ADT helps to select the patients for lifestyle modifications, dietary adaptations, and medical treatment. \[30\] DEXA scans are usually employed to measure BMD. They use lesser radiation doses than conventional X-ray. \[31\] In this technology, two X-ray beams are used, which are attenuated differently by bones and soft tissues. Bones are imaged with a high degree of accuracy in the DEXA scan, and thus obtained X-ray images determine the bone mineral content in gm/cm$^2$ to calculate BMD. The femoral neck BMD is currently recommended as the reference standard bone site for precise BMD measurement because this has been the most widely validated bone site, and it provides a gradient of fracture risk higher than that of several other techniques. \[32\] BMD measurements are reported as T-score, i.e., the number of standard deviations by which patient’s estimated bone loss deviates from the mean of normal population of the same gender at the given site. \[33\] A T-score of $-1$ is an indicator of 10%–20% bone loss and increases the relative risk of fracture by 1.5–2 times.

The European Association of Urology (EAU) guidelines recommend that before starting long-term androgen deprivation therapy in patients with prostate cancer, a baseline evaluation of BMD should be performed using a DEXA scan and a deci-

### Table 3. Therapeutic characteristics and methods of FRAX score measuring in previous studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Type of patients</th>
<th>Type of treatment modality</th>
<th>Mean ADT duration</th>
<th>Measurement methods for FRAX or bone health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Saylor et al.[22]</td>
<td>On ADT</td>
<td>GnRH agonist</td>
<td>1.6 Yrs (0–17)</td>
<td>FRAX with CRF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FRAX with BMD by DEXA Scan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Adler et al.[14]</td>
<td>Localized prostate cancer</td>
<td>Orchidectomy, GnRH agonist and antagonist Androgen antagonist</td>
<td>3.6±3.3 Yrs</td>
<td>T-score versus FRAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Neubecker et al.[25]</td>
<td>With/without ADT</td>
<td>Orchidectomy, GnRH agonist and antagonist Androgen antagonist</td>
<td>16.5 Months</td>
<td>BMD/T-Score/FRAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Dhanapal et al.[24]</td>
<td>On ADT</td>
<td>LHRH agonists</td>
<td>13.8+18 Months</td>
<td>DEXA Scan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>James et al.[13]</td>
<td>On ADT</td>
<td>Orchidectomy, GnRH agonist and antagonist Androgen antagonist</td>
<td>13 Months</td>
<td>FRAX with BMD, FRAX without BMD, T-Score alone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Valery et al.[26]</td>
<td>On photon radio therapy with/without ADT</td>
<td>ADT and/or EBRT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>FRAX using CRF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>McDonald et al.[27]</td>
<td>Localized prostate cancer</td>
<td>EBRT</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>CT-based bone density assessment without BMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Kawahara et al.[23]</td>
<td>All patients with prostate cancer, excluding CRPC</td>
<td>Brachytherapy, Radical prostatectomy, EBRT, ADT monotherapy, Active surveillance</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>DEXA scan using BMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Ojeda et al.[17]</td>
<td>High-risk localized prostate cancer</td>
<td>ADT zolendronic acid alendronate</td>
<td>24+6 months</td>
<td>Hologic QDR-4500 DEXA scan using BMD and CRF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FRAX: fracture risk assessment; ADT: androgen deprivation therapy; CRF: clinical risk factors; BMD: bone mineral density; EBRT: external beam radiotherapy; NA: not available; CT: computed tomography
sion for follow-up BMD measurements should be based on the value of the initial T-score. For an initial T-score <1.0, the BMD assessment is needed every 2 years. The annual BMD measure-
ment should be done for T-scores between −1.0 and −2.5 in the absence of associated risk factors.

National comprehensive cancer network guidelines for men on ADT
A baseline BMD assessment is done before the initiation of ADT. The 10-year fracture risk is calculated using the FRAX tool; ADT-related osteoporosis is considered secondary under the FRAX algorithm. Recommendations for men with a 10-year absolute risk of ≥3% for hip fracture or 20% or greater for any major osteoporotic fracture are oral calcium (1200 mg) plus vitamin D3 (800–1000 IU) and an antiresorptive therapy, which may include subcutaneous denosumab (60 mg) every 6 months or intravenous zoledronic acid (4 mg) annually, or oral alendronate (70 mg) weekly.[30]

Different methods for assessing the fracture risk
Various methods have been described in literature to assess the fracture risk, and many comparative studies have been conducted with this regard. Even FRAX scores are also calculated into different ways. The following methods can be used to assess the risk of bone fracture:

a) BMD using DEXA,
b) T-score,
c) FRAX using CRF without BMD,
d) FRAX using BMD or T-score,
e) Garvan fracture risk calculator,
f) Computer tomography (CT)-assisted screening.

Role of FRAX and other calculators
Current literature shows that fractures are not unusual in candidates whose BMD or T-score does not suggest the indication for osteoporosis treatment.[9] The FRAX calculator was introduced

---

### Table 4. Result and conclusion of previous studies related to FRAX in prostate cancer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>10-year risk of MOF (%)</th>
<th>10-year risk of hip fracture (%)</th>
<th>Comments/conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Saylor et al.[22]</td>
<td>• FRAX using CRF including ADT as secondary osteoporosis-12%</td>
<td>• FRAX using CRF including ADT as secondary osteoporosis-3.1%</td>
<td>• The FRAX algorithm identifies greater proportion of candidates for treatment than the T-score alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• FRAX using CRF excluding ADT as secondary osteoporosis-8.4%</td>
<td>• FRAX using CRF excluding ADT as secondary osteoporosis-1.8%</td>
<td>• Prevalence of the fracture risk and need for treatment was strongly influenced by advancing age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• FRAX calculation using femoral neck BMD (with DEXA- 7.0%, without DEXA- 11%)</td>
<td>• FRAX calculation using femoral neck BMD (with DEXA- 0.9%, without DEXA- 2.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Adler et al.[14]</td>
<td>• FRAX with BMD- 8.0±4.9%</td>
<td>• FRAX with BMD- 1.6±1.7%</td>
<td>The DEXA and FRAX algorithm identified different populations of men on ADT needing treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• FRAX without BMD- 12.3±6.7%</td>
<td>• FRAX without BMD- 3.8±2.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Neubecker et al.[25]</td>
<td>• FRAX without BMD-10.8%</td>
<td>• FRAX without BMD- 5.5%</td>
<td>Inclusion of BMD in the FRAX calculation did not affect the predictive ability of FRAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• FRAX with BMD- 9.5%</td>
<td>• FRAX with BMD- 4.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Dhanapal et al.[24]</td>
<td>MOF-5.6%</td>
<td>Hip fracture—2.2%</td>
<td>ADT increases chances of fracture risks, including both MOF and hip fractures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>James et al.[13]</td>
<td>10.0% (Range, 1.7%–24.0%)</td>
<td>4.0% (Range, 0.2%–22.8%)</td>
<td>Prediction of the bone fracture risk: FRAX without BMD &gt; FRAX with BMD &gt; T-score alone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Valery et al.[28]</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>0.13% (Range, 0%–1.6%)</td>
<td>Photon therapy for prostate cancers did not influence FRAX score or hip fracture risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>McDonald et al.[27]</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td>1.3% (Range, 0%–22%)</td>
<td>Use of CT-based FRAX may identify additional subjects for pharmacotherapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Kawahara et al.[23]</td>
<td>7.9% (8.8%±4.3%)</td>
<td>2.7% (Range, 3.5%±3.1%)</td>
<td>Duration-dependent worsening of FRAX scores was seen with ADT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Ojeda et al.[17]</td>
<td>2.4%±1%</td>
<td>0.7%±1%</td>
<td>The greatest loss of BMD occurred during the 1st year of ADT and was stabilized in the 2nd year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FRAX: fracture risk assessment; MOF: major osteoporotic fracture; ADT: androgen deprivation therapy; CRF: clinical risk factors; BMD: bone mineral density; NA: not available; CT: computed tomography
by WHO in February 2008 for better predication of the fracture risk by accounting for additional patient characteristics with or without the use of BMD. Currently, this is the most commonly used fracture assessment tool worldwide.\cite{18,22} The application of the FRAX algorithm has been further supported by several associations/foundations including the NOF, International Osteoporosis Foundation, American Society for Bone and Mineral Research, and International Society for Clinical Densitometry.\cite{19,18,22}

Saylor et al.\cite{22} showed that the FRAX model detected a greater number of individuals with prostate cancer at risk for fracture than the BMD alone. They also found an advanced age as one of the most robust risk factors and almost all patients with more than 80 years of age were suitable for treatment. Another study by Adler et al.\cite{14} demonstrated that the FRAX calculation using the femur neck BMD or without BMD detected different populations at risk of fracture. Additionally, low BMD including wrist identified a population that did not overlap well with population found by the FRAX algorithm. One of the explanations for this difference may be that many African-Americans men were included in this cohort, and there is some concern that the FRAX prediction is not so appropriate for men, particularly for African-Americans.\cite{14}

A Garvan-nomogram-based fracture risk calculator (www.fractureriskcalculator.com) is also in common use in the fracture risk assessment in clinical practice. It also incorporates presence of a recent fracture/fall event and total episodes of fractures for risk assessment. While the FRAX algorithm is recommended as the primary tool that can calculate a 10-year fracture risk, the Garvan fracture risk tool calculates both the 5- and 10-year fracture risk probability and has additional benefits in patients with recurrent fractures and falls.\cite{18} However, the CRF for FRAX algorithms are not included in the Garvan risk calculation, so the risk estimate may be low when compared to FRAX in the presence of multiple CRF, and the Garvan calculator is considered to be suitable for patients older than 60 years of age.

Factors affecting FRAX

Advancing age has a deleterious impact on the bone health. The osteoporosis incidence is 13% in Western males >50 years of age and 35% in otherwise healthy males in developing nations.\cite{9} The current literature shows that a total duration of ADT affects the BMD and therefore the FRAX score, while controversies exist about the effect of the mode and type of ADT on FRAX.\cite{23-27} Adler et al.\cite{14} showed that the DEXA and FRAX score identify different candidates that require treatment among patients with prostate cancer on ADT. Neubecker et al.\cite{25} suggested that the inclusion of the BMD for FRAX measurement did not influence the predictive value of the FRAX. James et al.\cite{13} demonstrated that the prediction gradient for fracture risk assessment by various methods in descending order were FRAX without BMD, FRAX with BMD, and T-score alone. Valery et al.\cite{26} in their prospective study found that the photon therapy for prostate cancers did not influence the FRAX score or a hip fracture risk. In summary, the following factors may influence the FRAX scores (Table 4):

- Age, ethnicity, and region,
- Baseline BMD,
- Duration and type of ADT,
- Mode of radiotherapy (brachytherapy/EBRT/proton therapy),
- Presence of CRF,
- Measurement methods: With/without BMD, CT-based.

Clinical risk factors

Large prospective observational studies have identified that the inclusion of both CRF and BMD in the FRAX calculation has a better predictability for a fracture risk than the CRF or BMD alone.\cite{13,22} Advancing age and a previous fragility fracture are the most robust risk factors influencing the FRAX scores.\cite{14,22} These CRF were originally described for postmenopausal osteoporosis FRAX calculation but are now also validated by various studies in patients with prostate cancer. ADT, being an organ transplant recipient, and prolonged immobility are counted as causes of secondary osteoporosis in the FRAX calculation.\cite{13,14,22-27}

Four studies mentioned CRF and their impact on the FRAX score in patients with prostate cancer.\cite{13,17,22,23} Saylor et al.\cite{22} showed that excessive alcohol consumption (11.6%) was the most prevalent CRF in their study cohort followed by a long-term glucocorticoids use (8.3%), parental history of hip fracture (7.4%), smoking (4.7%), and personal history of fracture (2.5%). The prevalence of CRF other than excessive alcohol consumption was less than 10%. Kawahara et al.\cite{23} also demonstrated that daily alcohol consumption of ≥3 units was the most common CRF (31.1%) in their study. Other CRF, in a decreasing order, were a previous fracture (20.9%), current smoking (11.3%), secondary osteoporosis (8.9%), parental history of hip fracture (7.4%), glucocorticoids (3.1%), and rheumatoid arthritis (1.1%). James et al.\cite{13} reported that 7.3% and 16.3% of patients in the study subjects were consuming oral glucocorticoids and tobacco, respectively.

Androgen Deprivation Therapy-Mode and Duration

An approximate BMD loss of 2%–8% in the lumbar spine and 1.5%–6.5% in the hip bone within the first year of ADT has been demonstrated by Diamond et al.\cite{31} The average duration of ADT of the included studies in this review was 13 months to 3.6 years (Table 2). The type (medical or surgical), mode (continuous or intermittent and monotherapy or combination therapy) and total duration of ADT and type of radiotherapy (external beam radiotherapy or brachytherapy) may influence bone health and the FRAX score.\cite{32,41} There are inconsistencies in the literature with
this regard. Both intermittent and continuous ADT have an equal impact on the bone loss, and none of them has been found to be superior in one study. Similarly, GnRH agonists with or without anti-androgens use have comparable BMD losses in the same study.\[35\]

**Implication of FRAX in Prostate Cancer**

The FRAX score measurement can be performed with CRF alone and with or without the inclusion of the femoral neck BMD or T-score. James et al.\[13\] performed a study that included 613 patients with prostate cancer on ADT to compare the osteoporotic risk by using the FRAX model with and without BMD and with T-Score. The median duration of androgen deprivation was 13 months (1–72 months). The FRAX score was measured for all subjects without the use of BMD. They found that 61.6% and 2.0% of patients met or exceeded the established treatment risk threshold of 3% for hip fracture and of 20% for MOF without the use of BMD, respectively. The median 10-year hip fracture risk and MOF were 4.0% (0.2%–22.8%) and 10.0% (1.7%–24.0%). The BMD measurement was available for 94 patients with a median T-score of 1.6 (0.3–4.7). When T-score was used alone, 19.1% patients were eligible for bone-tropic therapy. In the same patients, the FRAX model with the use of BMD detected 46.8% of patients eligible for treatment and 69.1% of patients without the use of BMD. Overall, the median 10-year hip fracture risk for all patients measured without the use of BMD was 4.1% (0.1%–19.0%). Therefore, the FRAX algorithm identified more candidates at risk of fracture without BMD than with BMD inclusion. A moderate positive correlation was found between the FRAX score for all patients with and without BMD. The FRAX risk calculation without BMD was most affected by advancing age, followed by FRAX with BMD, and then by T-score (Table 4).\[13\]

Adler et al.\[14\] conducted a study of 115 patients with localized prostate cancer on ADT for evaluating the efficacy of T-score versus FRAX score for the fracture risk assessment and showed that when the FRAX calculation incorporated the femoral neck BMD, the mean 10-year hip fracture risk was 1.6%. However, when the FRAX score was measured without the femoral neck BMD, it was 3.8% (i.e., above the 3% treatment threshold). The MOF risk estimation also increased when the femoral neck BMD was not incorporated into the FRAX calculation; however, it did not rise above the 20% risk threshold for hip fracture.

In a cross-sectional study of 363 patients with prostate cancer on ADT by Saylor et al.\[22\] the median age was 72 years, and the median duration of ADT was 1.6 years (range, 0–17 years). The prevalence of CRFs was <10% in the study subjects, with a 30.8% prevalence of bone metastasis. When the FRAX calculator used clinical information alone (without BMD), the median 10-year risk of the hip fracture was 3.1%, and 51% of patients exceeded the 3% risk threshold for treatment. The median major osteoporotic fracture risk was 12%. A risk of hip fracture accounted for larger number of patients reaching the treatment thresholds than did the major osteoporotic risk (51.2% versus 10.2%). When ADT was excluded as a risk factor for secondary osteoporosis, the estimated median hip fracture risk was 1.8%, and 32.8% of patients still exceeded the 3% risk threshold, while the FRAX algorithm using the BMD data showed that the median hip fracture risk was 0.9% with 15% of subjects exceeding the treatment threshold value. In contrast, the median 10-year risk of hip fracture without using BMD was 2.4%, and 44.1% subjects exceeded the 3% risk threshold. Fracture risk estimates with and without BMD were highly correlated in the study (r = 0.81; p < 0.0001). However, the estimated fracture risks were consistently lower when FRAX incorporated BMD data as compared to clinical information alone.

Ojeda et al.\[17\] conducted a two-phase prospective longitudinal study in 150 high-risk patients with prostate cancer on ADT to evaluate the rate of bone loss and fracture risk prediction with FRAX (Hologic DEXA Scan QDR-4500) at the baseline, 1, 2, and 3 years. Baseline osteoporosis was seen in 41% of patients. The mean duration of ADT was 2 years. The most common CRF were smoking and excessive alcohol consumption. The mean baseline 10-year MOF and hip fracture risk were 2.4% and 0.7%. Approximately, 4% of patients exceeded the risk threshold of 3% for hip fracture and none for MOF. The mean BMD deterioration after the 1st year of ADT was 3.7% and 2.1% in the lumbar spine and femur neck. However, the absolute fracture risk remains low if the androgen deprivation period does not exceed 2 years. Age, FRAX MOF, and hip fracture risk were found to be the independent predictors of bone loss in the lumbar spine in the linear regression model but Gleason score, baseline BMD, serum PSA, and duration of ADT were not found to be the independent predictors of the BMD loss. In this study, bone remodeling serum markers including amino-terminal propeptide of Type I collagen and beta carboxy-terminal telopeptide of collagen I were also evaluated. A significant elevation in markers of bone remodeling were observed after 1 year of treatment and a subsequent decrease after the 2nd year.

**CT-based bone density assessment with FRAX screening**

CT attenuation values of trabecular bones within the vertebral bodies of the lumbar spines have been illustrated as a method for the bone density assessment. Comparison of the CT attenuation threshold values with DEXA scan as the reference standard for osteoporosis prediction has yielded sensitivities and specificities above 90%.\[27\] Since CT scans are routinely obtained in men with prostate cancer for making planning of the external beam radiotherapy process, this may serve as an efficient alternative method for screening of osteoporosis without obtaining additional testing.
McDonald et al. performed a retrospective study of 609 patients with localized prostate cancer undergoing external beam radiotherapy. They evaluated the efficiency of a CT-based method of osteoporosis screening to the FRAX without incorporating BMD. The CT attenuation value of the L5 trabecular bone (L5CT) was assessed by contouring the trabecular bone on a single CT section at the mid-vertebral body level and by getting the average in the Hounsfield units (HU) of all included voxels. The L5CT attenuation values of 105 and 130 HU were employed as screening thresholds. The clinical characteristics of additional patients identified by each L5CT screening threshold were compared to patients whose estimated 10-year probability of hip fracture was more than 3% by the FRAX algorithm without using BMD. 74 patients (12.2%) exceeded the estimated 10-year hip fracture risk ≥3%. 22 (3.6%) and 71 (11.6%) additional patients were identified by CT screening methods when 105 HU and 130 HU thresholds were used, respectively. These additional patients identified by CT screening methods were more likely to be African-American, younger, obese, and without ADT. Thus, adding the CT-based screening methods to the FRAX without BMD identifies additional patients with different clinical characteristics.

After reviewing current literature, it can be summarized that despite several well-known strengths and advantages of using FRAX algorithms in the fracture risk assessment in a selected population of patients with prostate cancer, there are several limitations as well. The role of FRAX has not been established in randomized-controlled intervention trials with objectives of fractures prevention in these patients. FRAX does not incorporate several other probable risk factors such as the dose and duration of steroid use, total number and duration of causes of secondary osteoporosis, mode of ADT, vitamin D deficiency, and previous episodes of skeletal-related events. It calculates only the 10-year probability of fracture, while models such as the Garvan additionally calculate the 5-year fracture risk as well. In addition, fall-related risks are excluded explicitly from the FRAX risk measurement. Its utilization is of limited value in the presence of recurrent fractures or falls. Several risk factors that are unique and have significant impact on the bone loss or fracture risk in patients with prostate cancer include the mode and duration of ADT, mode of radiotherapy, vitamin D levels, bone remodeling markers, and recent or recurrent fractures. These factors can be added in FRAX algorithm calculations for a better prediction in prostate cancer patients. Still, the FRAX tool is not widely used by clinical practitioners for prostate cancer management, and further awareness about its role and implications will help in optimizing the bone health and the quality of life.

In conclusion, a prolonged ADT in patients with prostate cancer leads to suboptimal bone health and an increased risk of osteoporosis or fractures and therefore, FRAX. The FRAX algorithm can identify candidates with a high risk of fracture so that an appropriate treatment can be initiated at an early stage. The FRAX score is mostly influenced by an advanced age, ethnicity, duration and the mode of ADT, mode of radiotherapy, and presence of clinical risk factors. Several risk factors need to be added in the future for the FRAX calculation in patients with prostate cancer for a better risk prediction. The FRAX model is still an underutilized modality in clinical practice for prostate cancer management, especially in underdeveloped and developing nations, and further awareness about its role and implication will help in optimizing the bone health and quality of life of this population subgroup.

Peer-review: This manuscript was prepared by the invitation of the Editorial Board and its scientific evaluation was carried out by the Editorial Board.


Conflict of Interest: The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Financial Disclosure: The authors declared that this study has received no financial support.

References

8. Green HJ, Pakenham KI, Headley BC, Gardiner RA. Coping and health-related quality of life in men with prostate cancer ran-
domly assigned to hormonal medication or close monitoring. Psychooncology 2002;11:401-14. [CrossRef]